State Government

IN THIS ISSUE

Land Use

A Challenge to the States

Our lands . . . were originally very good; but use and abuse have made them quite otherwise. . . . We ruin the lands that are already cleared, and either cut down more wood, if we have it, or emigrate into the Western country.

George Washington

LAND AND PEOPLE are the basic resources of a nation, and the welfare of a people is intimately related to its use of the land. Three hundred years of national development have shown Americans that healthy land is a result of wise land use; but the cost of this demonstration has been heavy and today millions of acres of American land are sick. The restoration of failing land and the conservation of resources yet preserved have become major public responsibilities and afford opportunity for state leadership in the development of a nation-wide program of better land use.

Except where under the direct management of the federal government or where closely related to national defense or interstate commerce the use of the American land remains primarily in the custody of the states and their political subdivisions. The zoning powers exercised by counties and cities are state-derived, and the conservation of fish and wildlife, the regulation of private forestry practice, the formation of soil conservation districts, and the control of livestock grazing on state and private lands are dependent upon state legislation and administration. The states under their general power to legislate on behalf of the public health and safety are able to deal directly with a variety of problems affecting land use, whereas federal jurisdiction is frequently indirect, often requiring state implementation.

Following the practice of from time to time devoting an entire issue of STATE GOVERNMENT to a major area of state interest the October issue brings together eight articles concerned with land use in relation to the states. At a time when immediate problems of reconversion are pressing for solution the long-range views of the contributors to this issue have a particular value. The wisdom with which postwar industry is located, agriculture strengthened, soil conserved, forestry placed on a sustained yield basis, recreational and wildlife values maintained and expanded, land settlement controlled, and highway and air transportation improved, depends upon the development of a sound national philosophy of land utilization. The soundness of national attitudes toward land use will depend upon widespread public acceptance of a scientific point of view and the development of local responsibility for the solution to local land-use problems. The federal agencies concerned with the land afford machinery for coordination of local and state action into a varied, but interrelated national pattern. The states through their planning and development agencies and through departments of conservation, education, public works and commerce are in position to stimulate and assist the development of their particular land-use programs. Representative state development programs were described in the October, 1944 issue of STATE GOVERNMENT, and the year just passed has seen the further extension and refinement of planning activities in many states.

Coordinated Action a Necessity

Although Americans have learned that by careless use of the land "one generation can condemn another to a lower standard of living," the interrelatedness of land-use problems has not yet gained full public appreciation. Public measures relating to the use and development of the land are usually considered singly in legislative sessions, and administrative agencies, federal, state, and local, in pursuit of their respective responsibilities too often discover themselves at unforeseen cross-purpose.

The problem is not primarily one of intergovernmental cooperation. The articles in this issue illustrate in detail the successful cooperation between federal, state, and local agencies in agriculture, soil conservation, forestry, park development, wildlife management, rural resettlement, and highway construction. The present task is the coordination of existing cooperative programs into a well-balanced, consistent program of land utilization. Coordination through consolidation of related administrative agencies and by the development of interdepartmental cooperative devices has been undertaken in several states. Planning and development agencies in the states have assisted in the task, but without exception the states have recognized that the actual plans made and jobs done must develop in local communities.

The state has a responsibility for leadership in the definition of broad objectives and in enabling and facilitating local initiative. Direct state action is frequently essential to a grass-roots land-use program. But the local, democratic methods of the land-use programs now developing in America and their reconciliation of individual freedom and public welfare are perhaps as significant as the programs themselves. The soil conservation district is living evidence that common purposes can be achieved without centralized control, that planning can be democratic as well as autocratic, that government can enlarge, as well as restrict, the area of individual freedom and prosperity.

International Implications

During the century and a half since Washington warned against exploitive methods of land use America has discovered the tools and the methods for reversing a dangerous trend. In the management of our resources we have yet to approximate some of the best European practices. But our progress has been rapid and we are able today to render valuable technical assistance in large areas of the world in which serious land-use problems have existed or are developing. Latin America, South Africa, and Australia have recently received American scientific assistance in their attack upon serious soil conservation problems. China and the Middle East will need help in the tremendous task of providing a decent subsistence economy for their peoples. Through good land use the American states will contribute to the stability and prosperity of a world now hungry and impoverished, and will promote conditions under which democratic institutions have the best chance for development. They will be answering one of the major challenges of this interdependent world.

State Government

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STATE GOVERNMENT is published monthly by the Council of State Governments, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois. It is a forum for discussion of governmental problems of interest to its readers. The views expressed by its contributors are not necessarily the views of the Council of State Governments.

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in a sound position. The amazing economic resiliency of a nation like France which permits her to survive wars, defeats, depressions, invasions and disasters unknown in our national history, is founded principally upon the high quality of her agriculture and the productivity of her land. When industries are bombed out, her territory occupied, her currency inflated, the agricultural population remains solid and indestructible.

The answer is not subsidies but a better agriculture, and better land use. Our good agricultural land must be protected against further erosion by wind and water. What land has been partially destroyed by erosion or poor land use must be restored to fertility and efficient production. Mechanization must replace animal power with its high costs in time, labor and efficiency. Farms must be run on a business-like basis; the farm as "a way of life" is no longer possible save on that basis. Distribution must be improved both in extent and in efficiency. A nation-wide fertilizer program must be undertaken to restore to approximately 90 per cent of our soil the essential mineral elements of which it has been robbed during generations of bad and greedy farming. The immense growth of farm cooperatives which has alarmed many industrial and business elements has come about through the efforts of the farmers themselves to solve some of these problems, because neither government nor private enterprise has done so. In all this, the point should be made that the farmer is the bitterest enemy of subsidies and government bribes. He does not want to have his problem solved by subsidies; he wants to make an *honest* living and have an *honest* purchasing power.

The solution to a sound agriculture lies partly with the farmer himself and partly with government. Fundamentally the question is of education and partly it is a question of state encouragement. The soil conservation district laws existing in forty-five states are a great step forward. More money for state agricultural colleges, better pay for professors, county agents and other members of the Extension Service are a part of the answer, and perhaps most of all a realization on the part of industry, banking and private enterprise of the immense extent with which their interests are tied to a sound agriculture, low food costs and the purchasing power of the farmer.

As Dr. Hugh Bennett, head of the Soil Conservation Department has often observed, "The Economy and the Civilization of this or any nation is founded upon about nine inches of productive topsoil. When that is gone there will be no economy, no civilization and no nation worth discussing."

That seems to me a statement which is beyond argument. It deals not with subsidies, with relief or bribes, or political maneuvers but with fundamentals.

INTERRELATED MEASURES REQUIRE COORDINATED ADMINISTRATION

THE VARIOUS ELEMENTS that usually go to make up a program of land use adjustment will generally be enacted singly and will frequently be directed at or will add powers or responsibilities to different existing state agencies. Some means for coordinating the administrative action of the state agencies responsible for the various measures may be necessary if land use adjustment is to be carried out as a unified program. In a given state, one law may relate to work of the forestry commission; others to schools, highways, and grants-in-aid; and others to county administration of tax-forfeited land. Teamwork . . . [is] essential.

There are at least two devices that should be helpful in obtaining necessary coordination: (1) Grouping certain related functions or agencies under one administrative head, and (2) cooperative planning by agencies operating in the same territory.

(1) Not all the functions and agencies included in a land use adjustment program are susceptible of being grouped or centralized together under one administrative head. But some grouping seems desirable, since it reduces the number of agencies that have to be brought together by other coordinating devices, and generally simplifies the problem of coordination.

(2) A land use adjustment program ordinarily includes measures or agencies that are not directly concerned with land management and use as such. For example, it may be related to measures or agencies of taxation, grants-in-aid, the consolidation or reorganization of local units of government. It will be related to the local governmental jurisdictions in which the lands lie. It may also be related to various activities and agencies of the Federal Government. Cooperative land use planning—by community, county, and state committees representing the respective agencies together with representative rural people—holds the key to this situation. On them sit laymen, state and local officials, and federal officials. At the grass roots first and then at the state level, the sharing of points of view and the debate over ways and means should lead to the recommendation of well-rounded programs to attack the significant land use and property problems of the area, with each unit of government assigned its appropriate role in the composite program.

Each unit can carry out some phase of a total program better than the others. The Federal Government is in a position to give financial assistance and guidance and because of constitutional limitation the states alone can adopt such land use measures as are discussed in this report, some or all of which are required in every land use problem area in the country; local units of government frequently are the most practical for face to face dealings with land users and residents of the area. Hence a total program should include all units of government in appropriate combination, a combination that can best be worked out in group discussion, such as provided by local and state planning committees.

State Legislation For Better Land Use. A Special Report by an Interbureau Committee of the United States Department of Agriculture, April, 1941, pp. 112–113.

Soil Conservation Among the 48 States

By Hugh H. Bennett

Chief, Soil Conservation Service
United States Department of Agriculture

The United States has been the first among the nations to develop a practical technology of soil conservation and set the pattern for its country-wide application to the land.

Today, 46 of the states have a definite legislative stake in this better land-use program, and landowners and operators throughout the entire 48 are taking increasing advantage of its facilities and benefits; that is, all but two states have enacted legislation enabling their farmers to organize self-administered soil conservation districts for group handling of their conservation and related land-use problems, and now many are backing up the authorizing legislation with appropriations to further the local soil conservation programs.

Already, more than 1,300 such soil conservation districts have been organized, more than half of them since the start of the war. Through them, farmers are drawing upon local, state, and federal sources for a wide variety of information and technical or other available assistance. County commissioners; state departments of agriculture, health, forestry, and wildlife; state highway commissions; state extension services and experiment stations; the Soil Conservation Service and other U. S. Department of Agriculture bureaus, and other federal agencies concerned with land and water resources, including branches of the military during the war—all are being called upon for particular services by the soil conservation districts.

Soil Conservation—A New Science

It has been in only a little more than a decade that we have diagnosed the ills of our agricultural land by careful surveys and on-the-ground studies of the causes and effects of accelerated erosion. At the same time, we have worked out by scientific experiment and demonstrations complete land-use systems and special cultivation practices designed to solve every variation of the soil erosion problem. Finally, we are today applying this conservation agriculture to our farms and ranges, working toward the goal of complete and permanent soil and water conservation on our total land acreage.

A dozen years ago we knew little about the techniques of soil and water conservation, and the vast majority of our people did not realize the importance of the soil erosion problem. Only a few Americans looked with genuine concern upon gullying in millions of crop fields, streams brown with soil from upland farms, and blowing dry lands as having direct relation to our national economy, the welfare of people living today, or the welfare of future generations. Today, after a decade of intensive effort on the part of millions of Americans, the picture is different—it is indeed a much more hopeful picture. Although our soil erosion problem is far from being solved, we can say with confidence that it will be solved in the not too distant future.

Magnitude of the Task

From the point of view of a national program to put our entire agriculture on a soil and water conservation basis, we may say, also, that the most difficult part of the job has been carried to a successful conclusion. Granted that only a little more than 10 per cent of our agricultural land is as yet under complete conservation; still, the beginning has been made, the pattern is set, and rewards are proving far greater than was anticipated. It is definitely apparent now that we are catching up with our land erosion problem—a problem of very large proportions in extent and severity, and in its effects upon millions of our people. In another 10 to 15 years, if we keep hammering away at the present rate, we should reach that point where soil and water conservation will equal or surpass the rate of land impairment by erosion. From then on we should make rapid, certain progress toward virtual elimination of soil losses by farmland erosion in our country.

This is of utmost importance. It means that we shall have reversed, within approximately a quarter of a century, a dangerous trend which has been developing in the United States for 200 years. We shall have met a fast-spreading, destructive force of huge proportions, faced it squarely and started on the way to eliminating it. This has not happened before in the history of the world. Never before has a nation with so large an area of agricultural land faced a soil and water conservation problem of such gigantic proportions with such an excellent chance of solving it.

Thousands of scientific experiments have gone into the making of our soil conservation technology, by cooperative agreement between the Soil Conservation Service and the state experiment stations.

Preparing a Conservation Program

It was necessary first to study the process of erosion itself in all agricultural regions. After that came experiments on farm land to work out cropping systems and cultivation methods for the saving of rainfall in dry regions, and to permit safe disposal of excess rainfall in humid regions. Studies had to be made of hundreds of types of vegetative cover; of the values of crop residues; of organic matter and fertilizers and their effect upon stability of soils, infiltration of water, and resistance of soils to wind erosion.

The research work of the Soil Conservation Service has included studies of farm irrigation, covering such problems as economic use of water, evaporation, spreading water for storage underground, and prediction of irrigation supplies from snow surveys. Field studies

similarly have been made of the best methods of drainage. These and other studies and experiments on entire watersheds proved that no single soil conservation practice is sufficient. Likewise, for adequate erosion control and water utilization, lessening of flood damage, and continuous profitable use of land, all the farms in a watershed must be treated.

As a result of this extensive scientific research, 59 principal practices have been developed and are being used by farmers and ranchers of the country. These, with other minor practices applicable to special land problems, constitute the technology of our modern soil conservation program. As a whole, the program is based on the principle that the agricultural land of the United States must be used according to its natural capabilities, acre by acre, and treated according to its needs. This means that conservation work is custom-tailored, that land use must fit the land, and that proper coordination of conservation measures is necessary to give effective protection to any given piece of land.

Thus the federal government, through the Soil Conservation Service, and the states, through their research and other institutions, have worked together for the development of a wholly new and tremendously significant trend in agriculture.

Soil Conservation Districts

In the early days of the program, as soil conservation methods were proved of value, demonstration projects for problem areas were established in the more important agricultural regions of the country. Service technicians worked with farmers in their fields, pastures and woodlots, pointing out the soil and water losses that were taking place every season and helping the farmers work out practical methods for control.

As the demonstrations prospered, and conservation work spread to farms around them, there was a growing demand for a means by which this work could be extended more speedily and economically. Soil conservation throughout the United States was made possible when the state legislatures began passing laws for soil conservation districts in 1937. Today, these districts encompass approximately 700,000,000 acres and some 3,400,000 farms, and include parts or all of more than 1,700 counties. Committees of the state soil conservation districts direct administration of these laws.

Many farmers have known for a long time that definite plans and scientific practices are needed to prevent soil losses and build up and maintain production. One of the greatest values in the organization of the soil conservation district is that neighbors are encouraged to discuss among themselves the methods appropriate to their land, regardless of boundaries dividing their farms, and they are helped by the district in applying these methods. No movement in years has grown as fast as has the program for soil conservation districts. In future years, when the districts have had more time to prove themselves, this enterprise undoubtedly will be regarded as one of the greatest accomplishments in the history of agriculture. The district is doubly practical in that its objective—soil and water conservation—can be attained with profit to farm people. It is truly democratic because it is formed and operated by local people. It is of permanent value in preserving the foundation of all our agricultural production, the soil.

The stated purpose of the Soil Conservation Service is to aid the people of the nation in bringing about desirable physical adjustments in land use with a view to bettering human welfare, conserving land and water resources, establishing a permanent and balanced agriculture, and reducing the hazards of floods and the siltation of valuable lands and costly reservoirs. Fundamentally essential to such a program is accurate knowledge of the land itself, the damage by erosion—where such damage is and how serious it is—the land's present productive capacity, and its conservation needs. Without such knowledge, any efforts to put the agriculture of the country on a conservation basis would result in hit-or-miss methods foredoomed to failure or, at best, only halfway effective.

Surveying the Nation's Soil

One of the first actions of the Service was to make a reconnaissance in 1934, of the extent and severity of erosion over the entire country. The seriousness of the problem, as revealed by this survey, was astounding even to those best acquainted with the subject. Some 50,000,000 acres of once-fertile cropland were found to be ruined for further practical cultivation, and another 50,000,000 acres were almost as badly damaged and ready for abandonment. On a second 100,000,000 acres, erosion had stripped away from 25 to 75 per cent of the topsoil. And on a third 100,000,000 acres, the wasteful, ruinous process of erosion was found to be actively under way. This 300,000,000 acres—equal to the combined extent of Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, Missouri, Maryland, and Kentucky—was all cropland. In addition, the survey revealed that millions of acres of range and pasture land had been either ruined or damaged by erosion within the past century.

No such survey as this ever had been made before in any part of the world. During succeeding years the information gained by this study of the land has been refined and supplemented by detailed surveys in soil conservation districts and in areas where erosion is especially hazardous to profitable farming.

Methods of Land Analysis

There are many phases to this detailed study of land: Soil types and soil depth must be ascertained, and the soils of every acre must be studied to determine texture, amounts of plant nutrients, permeability for water, degree of erosion, salinity, and other factors. Slope of the land must be measured and charted, and the water table determined. In many areas, the potential productivity of the land under irrigation must be studied in relation to conservation treatments; in other localities the problem is artificial drainage. Climatic studies must be made, also, to enable farmers to adjust their conservation programs to the prevailing rainfall, wind directions and velocities, water available from melting snow, drought, and extremes of temperature. Likewise, all possible information regarding the uses which have been made of the land in the past is gathered for better understanding of the effects of various agricultural methods and types of farming over long periods.

These are the physical facts which are being assembled by the Soil Conservation Service as a basis for conservation work on the farms of the nation. When this information is analyzed and coupled with other data about the economic situation and personal needs and preference of the individual farmer, the result is a detailed, field-by-field plan of conservation farming that fits the physical and economic elements of the farm. All this information is shown on base maps made from aerial photographs on a scale large enough for individual farm planning. Farmers use these base maps, provided by the Service, in making their soil conservation plans. Industrial, city and other groups also use the surveys for improving land-use and water-supply conditions.

Inventory of Future Needs

The Soil Conservation Service also has made an inventory of future conservation needs of the country's total farmland acreage. This inventory reveals, for example, that 44,000,000 acres now in cultivation should be shifted to grazing land or woodland to protect the soils and use them most efficiently. Similarly, the studies show that more than 90 per cent of our farmlands need some type of conservation treatment. This ranges from simple measures, easily applied, to combinations of measures involving the most advanced techniques of soil conservation.

A few figures from the inventory of conservation needs will give some idea of the type and amounts of specific practices which should be applied to the nation's land in the postwar period:

40,000,000 acres of improved or new farmland drainage.
165,000,000 acres of contour cropland cultivation.
90,000,000 acres of terracing and 97,000,000 acres of strip cropping.
120,000,000 acres of farm woodland improvement.
10,000,000 acres of repair or improvement of farm irrigation systems.
7,000,000 acres of permanent water course and outlet plantings.
1,200,000 range and pasture stockwater developments (ponds, springs, etc.).
107,000,000 acres of range or pasture seeding.
416,000,000 acres of improved grazing land management.
12,500,000 acres of water diversion construction.
1,000,000 acres of stream-bank stabilization.
3,000,000 acres of wildlife border strips.

These represent only some of the major needs and the main practices of the great conservation task upon which we are working today. The various practices likewise will make a valuable contribution to flood control, because all of them are designed to keep soil in place and control the runoff of water on watersheds for benefit of farmlands, water systems, and water supplies. The Soil Conservation Service has estimated that approximately 3,600,000 man-years of labor, from all sources—farmer and outside assistance—will be necessary to finish the job. Of this amount it is calculated that 470,000 man-years of labor could be used during the first four years of the postwar period. Something like 100,000 men could be put to work within six to eight months after the end of the war.

The Soil Conservation Service not only is assembling these facts, but it is constantly making them available to all who are interested. Farmers, private, federal, and state governmental organizations, scientific groups, civic bodies, schools and universities, and many others find this information of value in planning their part of the conservation task ahead. The Service has just completed a breakdown, by states, of this inventory of conservation needs. It is available to state governments and state planning agencies.

Contribution of the States

The part played by the state governments and other organizations is indispensable to the success of the nation-wide soil and water conservation program. In fact, were it not for the laws of the state soil conservation districts, widespread soil conservation might be today little more than a dream of the distant future, awaiting the slow process of spotty application—a farm here, two or three farms in another county, a group of farms at one end of a watershed in another state. The districts are subdivisions of state government, and only at the level of the district can the actual work be done with full effectiveness. For this very reason, the states have tremendous interest, and also responsibilities, as each year the program spreads and becomes more firmly a part of the basic thinking and activity in American agriculture through these farmer-controlled and farmer-operated organizations.

On the other hand, the districts are dependent upon their respective state governments in many ways. At times, and in many localities, soil conservation work becomes human conservation as well. Frequently, discouraged farm families, and even whole communities, take new lease on life with their new conservation farming programs, particularly where states and their agencies take an active interest in the program as something of permanent value, not only to the individual but to the community.

Management of State-Owned Land

Some state governments, through their legislative branches, have expressed the opinion that they can work more efficiently toward their objectives by examining and improving their state soil conservation laws in conjunction with other land utilization laws and regulations. For furtherance of soil conservation in many range areas, for example, trespass laws and water laws could be revised to take into account the capabilities of the land and its needs for conservation techniques. On state-owned lands in many parts of the country, better management of grazing would greatly facilitate improvement of range lands by specific soil and water conservation methods such as seeding, stockwater developments, and deferred grazing. Likewise, in almost all states, maintenance work of highways should take into account the soil conservation programs of the farmers so that cut banks, culverts, and other highway features are not allowed to contribute to farmland erosion or to interfere with natural farmland drainage; and in the location of new highways, such work well might take into account the capabilities of adjacent farmland, in order to avoid parallel overdevelopment of unsuitable areas.

There is need for state action regarding drainage as

a part of the soil conservation program in many parts of the country. Complete soil conservation systems on approximately 40,000,000 acres of land throughout the country involve drainage repair and improvement. The Service estimates that drainage work on nearly 20,000,000 acres, or one-half of the 40,000,000 acres, is "high priority" for attention.

Direct assistance by states to their own soil conservation districts is of great value in helping these farmer groups to apply actual conservation plans. In the past two years, about thirty states have made some appropriations and allocations for programs in their soil conservation districts. Such funds, when used to assist the districts in obtaining and operating machinery and equipment, for furtherance of soil conservation education, or for other purposes directly concerned with actual land conservation methods, serve as a tremendous impetus to the district programs, particularly because the districts themselves are prohibited by law from levying taxes or imposing special assessments. Perhaps the states will see fit to increase their appropriations in future years.

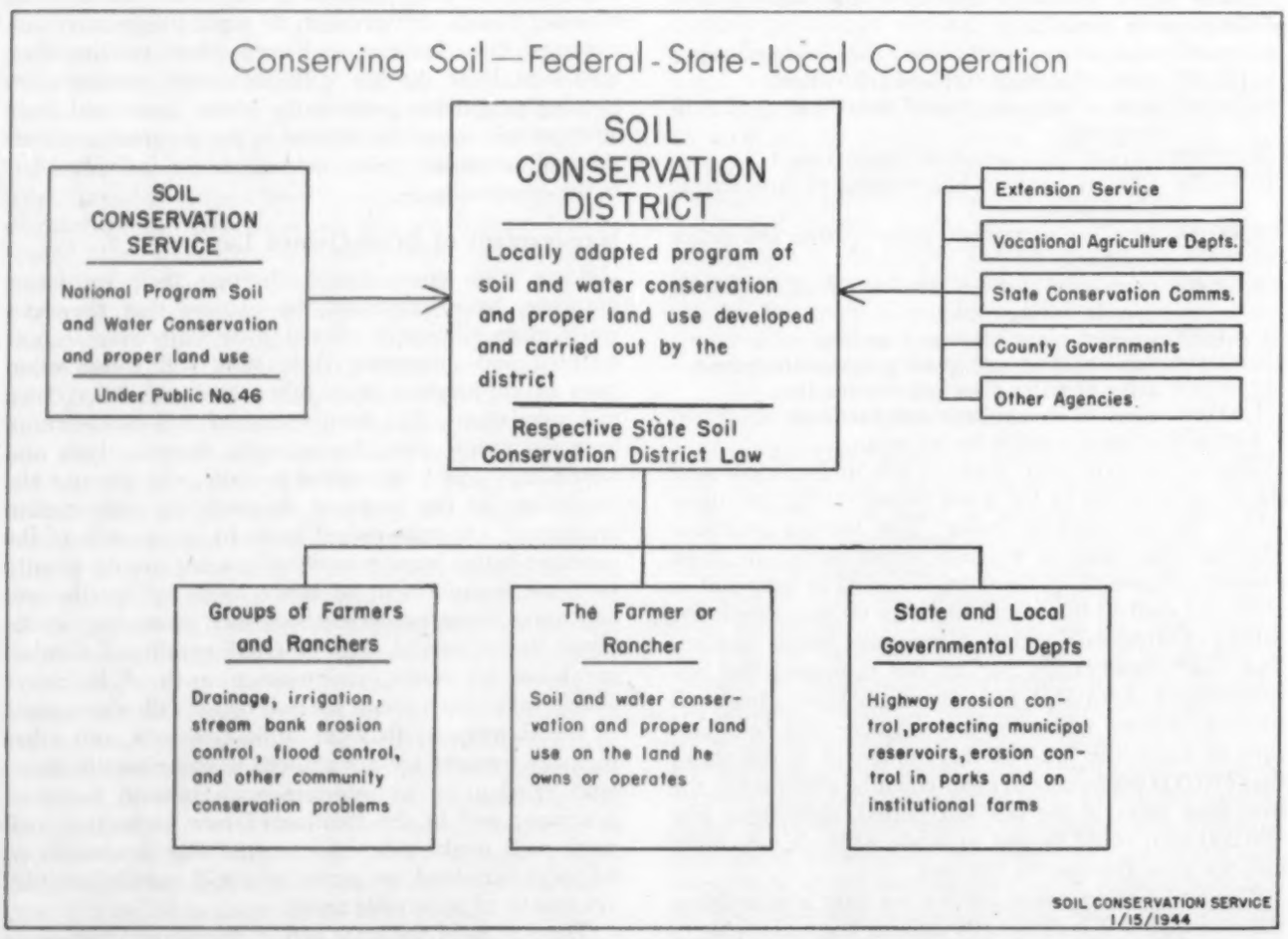
The state extension services, primarily through the county agents, have accepted generally the responsibility of conducting the over-all soil conservation educational program within the soil conservation districts. In many states, teachers of vocational agriculture assist in educational work in their local communities. The Soil Conservation Service gladly furnishes technical knowledge for all such educational programs.

The Meaning of Soil Conservation

To implement this soil conservation program that together we have set moving across our land, we shall have to be vigilant, objective in our thinking and planning, and ready at all times to do our best to strengthen and to knit more closely together all activities having to do with land conservation. This new agriculture represented by conservation farming means more than just better farming methods.

It also means putting new life into the wasted and eroded lands of many parts of the country, and new life into the people who live and work on farms. It means relatively better farm income, and better living for thousands upon thousands of farm families and urban families, too. It means that farms which lost money for years may begin again to show profits and pay taxes. It means better business and better financial conditions in thousands of farm communities and small towns in every state. It means better roads and highways, better schools, and better social and economic conditions generally.

We know this, because these things already have taken place in many communities in many states, and they will spread as conservation farming spreads. The tools to create a better America are in our hands.


Conserving Soil—Federal-State-Local Cooperation
SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE
National Program Soil and Water Conservation and proper land use
Under Public No. 46
SOIL CONSERVATION DISTRICT
Locally adapted program of soil and water conservation and proper land use developed and carried out by the district
Respective State Soil Conservation District Law
Extension Service
Vocational Agriculture Depts.
State Conservation Comms.
County Governments
Other Agencies
Groups of Farmers and Ranchers
Drainage, irrigation, stream bank erosion control, flood control, and other community conservation problems
The Farmer or Rancher
Soil and water conservation and proper land use on the land he owns or operates
State and Local Governmental Depts
Highway erosion control, protecting municipal reservoirs, erosion control in parks and on institutional farms
SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE
1/15/1944

A Forestry Plan

By Perry H. Merrill

State Forester of Vermont; President, National Association of State Foresters

Land is a natural resource of which no one should have absolute ownership. Its productive capacity should be maintained for future generations. It should be so handled whether for agricultural crops or forest crops that its productive capacity shall be maintained. Title to land is in fee simple and carries with it only the right to use it in a good husbandman-like manner.

Land Ownership and Use

Past experience has shown that the stability of forestry rests largely upon the stability of ownership of forest lands. Therefore, one of the major objectives to be attained in placing forest lands under sound management is to get such lands into the proper class of ownership. The policy should be directed toward retaining in private ownership as much land as can be economically operated. Exceptions to this policy would include lands needed for demonstration areas, recreation, water and wildlife development and other similar public uses. To make this policy effective studies should be made immediately and lands should be classified as to their ultimate ownership. In New England the title to tax delinquent land goes to the town if it is not bid in by some individual. Where tax delinquency is a problem, such lands should be acquired by the town or state when the land does not have the ability to produce economically.

Land ownership and use should be determined by authorized state officials cooperating with local authorities. A survey should be made to see what open areas now pastured or cultivated should be converted into forest land by planting or natural seeding.

Education

Intensive education is the first step to be taken in persuading woodland owners to handle their forest resources as a crop. If satisfactory results are to be obtained, at least one forester, trained in forest management, should be placed in each forested county to work with woodland owners, giving special attention to cutting practices and the marketing of forest products. An educational program aimed at building up forest resources on private property is a public responsibility. The cost of the program may well be shared by the state, local, and federal governments.

For almost a half century an educational campaign has been carried on more or less intensively throughout every forest state in the union to get better forest-cutting practices and management of our forest lands. The state extension services through the extension foresters have sent forth a message through the press and special publications and by demonstrations on the farmers' woodlots. Most recently, under the Norris-Doxey Act, the project foresters have given service to the landowners in marketing timber which they have selected to be cut. Lumber companies and trade associations have carried on an extensive educational campaign. Representatives of the state foresters' offices have issued publications, released news articles and given special services to thousands of forest landowners. Still many owners are a long way from practicing forest conservation and some control of cutting practices is therefore necessary.

Cutting Practices

On both state and national levels legislation which will establish minimum requirements for cutting practices on privately owned woodlands should be enacted at an early date. Considerable thought and discussion have been given to this subject on a nation-wide basis. Progressive timberland owners as well as many state and federal forestry officials recognize the need for some controls which will reduce the tendency to overcut our forest lands. In New England there is considerable thought which leans toward the enactment of state and federal laws setting up minimum cutting requirements which would be administered by the states on a 50–50 cost basis similar to the Clarke-McNary fire cooperative act.

The Northeastern Conservation Committee of the Council of State Governments drew up a model forest-cutting practice act. This model act has been endorsed by the forestry committee of the Council of State Governments.

In 1943 Maryland was the first state to pass an act regulating the cutting of timber on privately owned forest lands. During 1945 both California and Washington passed laws to regulate timber cutting by private individuals. In several other states bills were introduced which were not passed. Others have interim committees which are studying the subject.

Forest Taxation

If forest landowners are to be required to hold their timber for the general welfare of the public, an equitable system of forest taxation must be worked out. For several years Mississippi has had a severance tax which is reported to be working successfully. Washington has a flat rate per acre tax on forest land. In any state a forest tax law must fit into the tax structure of the taxing unit.

Forest Land Administration

All federally owned forest lands should be administered by one bureau, the U. S. Forest Service. The state forestry departments in most states are invested by law with the management and direction of all forestry interests in the state.

In order to avoid duplication of effort and travel all future federal forestry legislation should be administered through the U. S. Forestry Service. Cooperation with

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State Parks—A Recognized Land Use

By Harlean James

Executive Secretary, National Conference on State Parks

State parks are not little national parks nor are they big city parks. They are areas with specific state characteristics and they are chosen to render specific state service in the whole scheme of parks and reservations. During the first 80 years of our Republic, while we were busily settling and holding our extensive territory, there were no state parks. Indeed, during the same period there was only one national park—Yellowstone—not counting Hot Springs Reservation in Arkansas. California bears the distinction of having secured the first state park in 1864—Yosemite Valley—but 20 years later it was returned to the federal government, where it undoubtedly belongs.

During the 80 years that have elapsed since 1864, the states have proceeded, somewhat slowly at first, and often by the trial-and-error method, to secure state parks. Fully 60 years ago New York set aside some two million acres as Forest Park Preserves. During this period, especially in the 24 years since the National Conference on State Parks was organized, we have developed standards of admission and administration. Not all the states have adhered to these, but there is a well-marked tendency toward bringing into state-park systems those areas which qualify, and toward putting these areas to uses suitable for state parks.

Perhaps it is not strange that state parks should be more than parks located in defined administrative regions, since the federal government itself bears a unique relationship to its 48 sovereign states and the District of Columbia which now comprise the entire continental United States. Rhode Island and Texas may differ in size, population, and wealth; but each possesses an equal amount of residual sovereignty after the powers delegated to the federal government have been subtracted. And each has yet some characteristic, unspoiled native scenery and wildlife which it can protect from commercial exploitation and administer for the use and enjoyment of its citizens. Even in little Rhode Island there is one 3,100-acre state park which gives the feeling of wide open spaces, and a total state park acreage of more than six thousand acres.

Number and Acreage

In 1941, just before the war, there were listed in the 48 states, in various types of reservations owned and administered by the respective states, 2,583 areas containing 6,063,364 acres, and capable of accommodating 31,158 guests. Of these 2,583 areas, 1,060, totaling 4,222,830 acres, were classified as state parks; 252 areas as historic sites, monuments, memorials; 23 areas in parkways; 166 areas with 1,791,242 acres in state forests, 2 wildlife areas and 1,080 waysides. It is only natural that reservations which have been set aside in a period covering several generations by 48 different jurisdictions will not entirely conform to a single standard of excellence; but, through the combined influence of the National Conference on State Parks, the officials of the National Park Service who conducted the Park, Parkway and Recreation Survey in the states, and the park and forest officials who worked on the CCC program over a period of ten years, many states have been stimulated to develop well-rounded state park systems. The CCC program alone brought into existence a large number of parks which might not today be serving the people if there had not been a depression and the consequent pressure to secure areas on which to put the CCC boys to work.

Definition

Colonel Richard Lieber, who established the Indiana system of state parks and was for years Chairman of the Board and President of the National Conference on State Parks, declared in 1935 that state parks were not mere outing places. "A state park," said he, "is a typical portion of the state's original domain. It is a tract of adequate size, preserved in primaeval condition; it is unspoiled, unimproved and unbeautified."

As the states have proceeded with their systems, they have found that several types of areas may well be acquired and administered by the state. In some states there are areas called state parks which might better be administered by the counties or other local government units. During the years when Texas was acquiring the Big Bend area it was listed as a state park but has now been given to the federal government as a national park.

Under a well-balanced land-use program, we now commonly find the following types of areas under state administration:

Scenic state parks, which preserve in adequate reservations for all generations to come, natural areas characteristic of the original domain in the different parts of the state.

Historic sites and monuments important in the state's history, which are being created in most states and have great educational and inspirational value.

State forests, as listed above, which are increasing in number and size, particularly in the once-timbered states where there are no national forests. In some states, these forests are administered for forest crops; in others they are devoted partly or entirely to recreation. Thus has grown up the term *forest parks.* In any case, they preserve standing timber or promote reforestation, both laudable objectives, and frequently furnish opportunities for outdoor recreation.

Wildlife areas, so important in the federal holdings, which are just beginning to enter into state systems, though the states have been active in promotion and control of fishing and hunting for many years.

Parkways, a relatively new addition to the state park land-use program, furnish the motorist with a safe and

pleasant means of reaching park and recreational areas, or serve as principal traffic arteries in congested urban areas.

Waysides, small recreational areas developed as an adjunct to the modern highway to provide the motorist convenient places to pause for a scenic view, a short period of rest and relaxation, or a picnic lunch. In most states these are developed as an integral part of the highway system.

Acquisition

How are state parks acquired? Some state parks have been given to the state. Others have been purchased from public funds, either from current appropriations or from the proceeds of bond issues. Some have been assembled through exchange of school lands or transfer of federal lands. Occasionally, fish and game funds have been applied to purchase state parks, as well as game preserves. State forests have generally been purchased or acquired through exchanges. Probably it will surprise most people to know that many important state parks have been acquired through gift. Michigan, Maine, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin all have received many areas by gift. While most of these gifts have put the state in possession of invaluable parks, occasionally gift horses should be looked in the mouth and examined for what they are. If not suitable, donors should be guided to the appropriate agency. As the citizens in the various states have come to appreciate and use state parks, generous bond issues have been voted for park purchase. New York has been a leader. California has been expending the proceeds of a liberal bond issue to build a balanced system there, in accordance with the monumental state park survey by Frederick Law Olmsted, published in 1929.

Administration

But perhaps the most burning question is posed when we ask ourselves: Having secured properly qualified areas, how should they be managed for the use of the public to whom they are dedicated? A wilderness area might be said by the purists to be no longer wilderness when invaded by human beings. On the other hand any wilderness area will suffer from over-use. An invasion of locusts could hardly prove more destructive to the plant and animal life of a natural park than hordes of city dwellers turned loose in an area which they do not understand and for which they have no respect. State parks must be guarded from complete destruction even while they are made available for suitable use by respectful patrons. As Colonel Lieber so aptly remarked on this point: "It is immediately evident that there must be some compromise between the basic policy and the necessity of handling crowds in such an area." He believed, and practiced in his own Indiana parks, that there must be access roads but that within the parks there should be only essential automobile roads, which have a definite objective. He deplored the idea that expensive roads should be provided so that the park could be seen from an automobile. He suggested that, having landed the visitor in the park proper, "the best transportation medium from then on is on foot, over trails that are easily and cheaply constructed, do not mar the scenery and furnish an ideal method of really seeing a natural preserve." He added that "it is only on foot that one will take time properly to value the landscape."

But there must be some provision for handling the great crowds that come to all attractive parks. This is done in service areas, one or more to a park, according to size and topography. In these service areas will be the automobile camps (less used than formerly); the inns, lodges, and cabins for giving shelter and food to park guests; the camping and picnic grounds. For these and other park uses a new architectural concept has developed which will use, so far as possible, prevailing rural types and native materials in structures which will be unobtrusive in the landscape and provide simple accommodations.

Park Structures

In 1935 a very impressive illustrated volume was prepared by the Branch of Planning of the National Park Service on *Park Structures and Facilities.* In the "Apologia" which introduces the volume attention is called to the fact that it must be realized that structures, however well designed, almost never truly add to the beauty, but only to the *use,* of a park of true natural distinction. One other point is made: "Although a park structure exists solely for the use of the public, it is not required that it be seen from some distance. In its most satisfying expression, the park structure is designed with a view to subordinating it to its environment, and it is located so that it may profit by any natural screening that may exist."

Management "Do's" and "Don'ts"

Colonel Lieber again and again declared that "responsibility for the preservation of a primitive landscape is large. Since all the areas are heavily wooded, the great hazard is forest fires. Visitors must be repeatedly cautioned to be careful of cigar and cigarette butts, and the use of cooking and campfires should be greatly restricted. Such fires should be permitted only in the picnic and camping areas. Regulations also should be enforced to prevent the picking of flowers and the mutilating of shrubs and trees, defacement of rocks, buildings or signs." As a summary of "Do's" and "Don'ts" Colonel Lieber presented 14 points:

1. Provide a well-planned service area.
2. Provide a safe and ample water supply.
3. Check its quality regularly, in season, by analysis.
4. Provide for sanitary sewage- and garbage-disposal.
5. Regulate quality and cost of foodstuffs and lodging.
6. Furnish fireplaces and free cookwood to campers.
7. Stop vandalism of picking or digging flowers and ferns. (Best accomplished by appeals to the public.)
8. Keep a close watch for fires.
9. Avoid all "artificial improvements" in park proper.
10. Limit automobile drives to barest needs.
11. Construct easy and pleasant paths through woods and along water's edge.

12. Maintain service of Nature Study guides.
13. Make small charge for parking and camping to assure proper maintenance.
14. Collect a small admission charge to park.

All this, not to make the state parks artificial but to protect their wilderness character while making them available to the public.

Activities

A state park may mean many things to different visitors. The scientist, the poet, the nerve-tired urban dweller, the weary farmer may all find interest, stimulation, or relaxation as needed. But in state parks there is no place for golf courses, tennis courts, or ball diamonds. These are forms of organized sport which may be carried on in places designed for their use—city parks, play fields, country clubs, and similar areas. Those who wish only to indulge in these sports should go where there are provisions for them. They should not invade state parks, which are created for a totally different purpose. They would derive as little reward from visiting state parks as tourists derive from the foreign countries through which they pass, when they constantly play bridge on ocean liners and in de luxe hotels.

In those states where Recreational Demonstration Areas have been taken over from the federal government, or where a classification of recreational areas has been set up quite distinct from state parks, the application of recreational policies may be broadened to include some activities not suitable for state parks. On the other hand, historic sites and monuments are created solely to commemorate historic events or leaders and are in the nature of memorials, so that recreational facilities, except for providing for the care of visitors, should be omitted altogether. The great virtue of these monuments is that they are a visual education in the history of the state.

While the official agencies in charge of state parks vary, many states have set up Departments of Conservation under which there are state park, forest, and fish and game divisions. The park division is sometimes subdivided into parks, recreational areas, monument and historic sites. Waysides, which are often selected and even developed by the park authorities, are generally turned over to the Highway Departments for administration. Traveling motorists from within and without the states welcome well-kept shady waysides provided with simple facilities for picnicking.

In some states there are state park and forest commissions; in several there are Departments of Natural Resources. In all the states the agency in charge of the land in state parks is also in charge of any activities on the land. Recreation in state parks comprises hiking, whether by organized clubs or detached individuals, nature guidance along trails including outdoor trailside museums, picnicking, camping, swimming, boating, fishing, all so far as possible through making outdoor facilities available with sufficient safeguards and with a minimum of organized direction. Indeed, it is to be hoped that if the states go in for development of recreation, the administration of the state parks will be left exclusively in the hands of the public agencies responsible for the administration and preservation of the land. This does not mean that facilities for group camping by Boy and Girl Scouts and similar organizations may not be furnished with facilities in state parks, but it does mean, very decidedly, that activities should always conform to the conservation policies of those responsible to the state and to future generations for the lands and waters entrusted to their care.

Some Place To Go

And now, having contemplated the bare bones of state parks and their administration, let us recall for a moment the great Adirondack Forest Park Reserves in New York, the incomparable Niagara Falls, which is a State Reservation on the American side, the Palisades Interstate Park in New York and New Jersey, which brings some 45,000 acres of wild riverside scenery within easy access of Metropolitan New York. Let us think of Lake Itaska in northern Minnesota, where we find the headwaters of the mighty Mississippi; of Baxter State Park, which preserves Mt. Katahdin in Maine; of Starved Rock and Pere Marquette in Illinois; Turkey Run and Spring Mill in Indiana; Petit Jean in Arkansas; the Redwoods and Point Lobos in California; Highlands Hammock in Florida; Cumberland Falls in Kentucky; Mt. Greylock in Massachusetts; Mackinac Island in Michigan; Babler and Big Spring in Missouri; and that magnificent string of oceanside parks which have been acquired by the state of Oregon. We could go on naming many others of the more than a thousand state parks but these will suffice to stimulate the imagination of the traveler who has visited any of them.

The emphasis today is not merely on one or two spectacular state parks in each state; it is to select, within easy access of the entire state population, areas typical of that section of the state for preservation and service to the people. These, with other types of state reservations, and particularly the historic sites and monuments, may be the basis for developing an informed state loyalty far beyond that which could come from books alone.

Postwar Patronage

During the war many state parks have been used by the armed forces. But the lack of gas and easy transportation has reduced the attendance, particularly for picnicking and day trips. Some parks have been closed. But in most state parks, the hotel and lodge facilities have been booked to capacity for stays of a week or more. For the year ending in 1944 the total attendance in state parks was reported to be 36,493,107, a little less than half that reported for the year ending in 1941. During three war years a total of 264,836 acres have been added to state park systems. In some states it has been possible to take care of maintenance in spite of lack of manpower and in some parks a little building and rebuilding have been managed with unrationed materials. In the years immediately following the war, when a travel-hungry public sets out in automobiles for the open country, no one can doubt that the modest acreages now in state parks will be found utterly inadequate to meet the demand.

Teamwork in Game Management

By Clifford C. Presnall

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During the first three hundred years of white settlement in this country its resources of fish and game were commonly thought of as inexhaustible and were exploited accordingly. The urgent necessity for wildlife conservation was not generally felt until the first decade of the present century. It was not until the near-tragedy of the Dust Bowl and the waterfowl shortage that most of us realized that wildlife conservation could not go far unless it was tied closely to the conservation of all other natural resources. As a result it is now accepted that coordinated land management is a proper responsibility of local, state, and federal governments, as well as private landowners. Such teamwork offers the only practical means for saving the natural resources of this nation.

How does wildlife conservation fit into this broader program, and what is being done about it? The answers can be indicated by citing two specific problems—one dealing with federal lands and the other with privately owned lands. In each case the states, which control and administer the wildlife, share the responsibilities of coordinated land use equally with those controlling the land. But first, a quick look at the magnitude of wildlife resources in the country as a whole.

Wildlife a Major Public Interest

Big game is big business. The Remington Arms Company estimates that for outdoor sports there is an annual expenditure of over two billion dollars in the United States. Ninety per cent of this is spent by hunters and sport fishermen. Over sixteen million persons engage in such sports. In the 1943–44 season over seven and a half million hunting licenses were sold. The benefits to these people—the renewed vigor, the keener eye, the firmer step that come from days afield—are incalculable. Also beyond estimation are the healing and curative benefits obtained by those who do not hunt or fish—those who camp on the shore of some wilderness lake where moose feed in the morning mists and loons laugh in the dusk of evening, and those who climb to some glacier-cut crag to photograph a mountain goat or a few bighorn lambs at play. The fourteen million or more persons who do not hunt or fish but seek relief from the strain of modern life in the outdoors all testify to the great, though intangible, value of wildlife resources. Many more millions will turn to this source of strength and peace now that the war has ended. What more profitable objective, then, can be sought through cooperative effort than the wise coordination of wildlife with other uses of our lands?

Lands supporting wildlife are usually thought of as wild lands—forests, rugged mountains, open ranges, or swamps. This type of land makes up about 60 per cent of the one billion nine hundred million acres contained in the United States. Approximately one third of it is administered by federal agencies, principally in the eleven western states. On these vast areas the coordination of wildlife conservation with other forms of use is difficult, primarily because the wildlife at large is considered state property and the land and forage on which it lives is managed by federal agencies. A typical example of the difficulties involved is furnished by the so-called Modoc deer problem.

In southern Oregon there are many mule deer—perhaps thirteen thousand of them—which regularly drift south to Modoc County, California, for the winter. Yes, the climate is the attraction! It happens that the California-Oregon line is located north of a relatively low, warm basin that contains forage attractive and accessible to deer in winter. It is a case of going downhill for the winter, below the heavy snows, and in this instance downhill is south. Other deer herds move north and east into the basin, especially in severe winters, and a few remain all year. The forage there is also attractive to sheep and cattle which use the basin most heavily in spring and fall. The livestock alone, or any one of the three deer herds, could find ample feed if it were not for competition from the others. Some sportsmen have suggested the exclusion of all livestock. The stockmen objected to this violently and made counter proposals that were received with anything but cordiality by the sportsmen. Oregon citizens said California should authorize more liberal hunting regulations on the California herds that were eating up the feed and causing Oregon deer to starve in winter. Californians felt their herds needed building up, and said it was Oregon's problem. The Oregonians opened a doe season, but still the forage in the basin continued to decrease because of too much grazing by both deer and livestock. The basin, part of which is called the Devil's Garden, was rapidly becoming exactly that to the deer and livestock that were eating the range down to a starvation level. Everyone realized that unless they replaced talk with action they might soon be faced with a repetition of what had happened on the Kaibab Plateau between 1924 and 1928, when thousands of deer died of starvation and the forage for both deer and cattle had been so badly overgrazed that the carrying capacity of the range was far below normal for over two decades.

Last spring the Modoc problem was given thorough consideration by all concerned. The Forest Service, which administers most of the land in the basin, invited California and Oregon game commissioners to join in an inspection of the forage. Following this, the California Fish and Game Commission held a public meeting to which it invited the Oregon Game Commission, sportsmen, ranchers, foresters, and biologists from both states. All agreed that some compromises were necessary in

order to save the basic resource—grass and other forage. The stockmen stated their willingness to reduce livestock grazing by removing some cattle earlier in the fall than formerly. The sportsmen and game commissioners, in turn, pledged themselves to a cooperative investigation upon which to base a deer management program designed to avoid further damage to the forage. There was nothing spectacular about this meeting, and the good results from it will not be apparent immediately, for range recovery is a slow process. Its significance was the cooperative spirit shown in attacking a local segment of a national problem.

Necessity for Cooperative Action

At first glance a local western range dispute may seem to have little relation to national affairs. Consider, however, that there are dozens of similar cases throughout the eleven western states. Many remain unsettled; a few have resulted in completely coordinated land use. Consider also that the western range states include about 40 per cent of the total area of the United States, and that they produce annually nearly half a billion dollars worth of livestock and six hundred thousand head of big game animals. The latter furnish hunting involving an annual cash turnover estimated at thirty million dollars for hunting licenses, guides, travel, and other items. Consider, finally, that business of this magnitude profoundly affects the welfare of communities far from its western origin. For example, the second largest industry in our second largest city—Chicago's meat industry—is in large measure dependent upon the productivity of the western ranges. This, in turn, is dependent upon properly coordinated use that will insure maintenance of maximum yields of grass and browse. There is a direct and vital connection between the financiers of La Salle Street and the ranchers and sportsmen of the Devil's Garden, or of Murderer's Creek in Oregon, or the Fishlake country in Utah, or the Shell Creek Range in Nevada, or a score of other problem areas.

A basic pattern underlies nearly all problems of western land use involving wildlife. The game is managed by the states for the benefit of the general public. The range is largely managed by the federal government, in its role as administrator of National Forests, Grazing Districts and other types of public land, and the livestock is owned by ranchers who pay grazing fees for the use of forage on federal, state, or private lands. Game also feeds on these lands, but no grazing fees are directly received by anyone for the forage thus consumed—this despite the fact that some ranges receive heavier use from game than from livestock. State receipts from the sale of hunting licenses are in several cases partially returned to landowners in the form of habitat improvements designed to increase game production, but this is a relatively small item.

These divergent interests and controls can be manipulated to squeeze out one or more groups, with ultimate destruction of the range and all who depend upon it; or they can be coordinated on a "live and let live" policy under which the range and all concerned will increasingly prosper. There are many western areas, such as the Edwards Plateau in Texas, or the Navajo Reservation in Arizona and New Mexico, where livestock has literally eaten the grass into the ground. Yet the stockmen protest reductions in their herds. Conversely, there are ranges in northeastern Oregon, and adjacent to Yellowstone National Park, and elsewhere on which elk have overgrazed the forage severely. Yet some sportsmen and game commissioners still contend that there should be an elk or deer for every hunter regardless of how many the range will support. The double squeeze on grass and browse, with stockmen exerting political pressure on one lever and sportsmen on the other, is bringing slow death to range resources in many places, and has brought a sudden end to the office tenure of more than one game commissioner.

The range can be properly managed only through cooperative action, and that is possible only when the slogan, "more game and livestock," is replaced by the motto, "more grass and browse." Wild and domestic animals are merely harvesting machines, very efficient for harvesting the native crops from wild meadows and mountainsides. A harvesting machine is a liability without crops adequate for its maintenance.

On farm lands, in contrast to wild lands, the wildlife is often considered to be a crop rather than the means for harvesting the crops. It may surprise city dwellers to learn that an estimated 80 per cent of all wildlife in the United States is produced on agricultural land. In fur production, strange as it seems, the agricultural states far surpass the western range states, and there are at least six states east of the Mississippi which produce more furs per state than does Alaska. Ohio, for example, with an area only 7 per cent that of Alaska, now produces over twice as many furs as the Territory, exclusive of the Pribilof Islands. Or consider big game, which people usually associate with wild lands rather than settled communities. For the purpose of this comparison the United States is divided into two regions—one west of the 100th meridian, in which forest and range lands predominate, and the other east of that line, in which the lands are chiefly agricultural. The latter region contains approximately 54 per cent of the land area of the country and about the same proportion of the total big game population of the United States.

Relation to Coordinated Land Use

The old notion that wild land is necessary for producing wildlife is a fallacy. The bulk of America's game is grown on farmers' pastures, woodlots, fence rows and stream or pond borders. Remember that word "border"; it is important in the coordination of wildlife management and farm practices. This is evident in the history of the coordination of land use for quail and farm crops.

The bobwhite quail is one of the most widespread and popular game species on farms. It is estimated that about twenty-two million of these delicious birds are shot annually. The maintenance of large breeding populations of quail is one of the major tasks of many state game commissions, especially in the southern states which are well suited to the birds. Various methods have been tried. For many years quail farms were all the rage, and hunters placed great reliance upon release of pen-raised birds to maintain good shooting. Gradually this expensive method became less popular, as plantation managers and farmers realized that native quail, if given

a chance, would naturally keep the country stocked to its carrying capacity. During the past decade game commissions have turned to reasonable shooting restrictions and improvement of quail food and cover.

This is where coordinated land use entered the picture. Improvement of the quail habitat was found to be a benefit to the birds and the sportsmen, but to the farmer it meant extra work in planting food patches that he could not harvest except in the form of an occasional quail for Sunday dinner. Hence a system of farmer-sportsmen cooperatives was developed, in which the sportsmen aided the farmers in planting food patches. Some cooperatives succeeded, but in many cases the farmers found that the benefits did not warrant retiring enough lands from cropping to make it worthwhile to the sportsmen.

An Emerging Pattern of Cooperation

It was not until about 1941 that a workable scheme was developed, a scheme involving four-way cooperation between the state, the landowner, the Soil Conservation Service and the Fish and Wildlife Service. The scheme was built around the idea of borders—the unused strips of land between crop land and forest where shade and tree roots prevented good growth of crops. It was more than a scheme; it was a scientific form of land use, built upon many years of experimentation and based upon natural laws.

Competition for plant food is the major principle involved here. Every farmer knows that where crop land and woodland join there is a strip of land twenty to fifty feet wide on which crops do poorly because the tree roots take out much moisture and plant food, and the trees also partially exclude the sunlight. Northern farmers can correct this by clearing and pasturing the edge of the woodland, but in the south, where brush and trees grow rapidly, annual cultivation has been necessary to maintain the strip, which seldom produced enough to pay for the work. Another disadvantage was that the bare ground often eroded badly on slopes. If, on these strips, something could be grown that would not require cultivation, would prevent encroachment of tree growth and retard erosion, and yet not drain nourishment from the crops, the farmers would save considerable labor and expense. Such a riddle seemed impossible to solve with anything short of Oriental magic, and it was indeed from Asia that the answer finally came. The Soil Conservation Service and others are now propagating several species of Asiatic bush clovers, more commonly known by the scientific name of Lespedeza, and are making the seed available to qualified farmers who agree to plant and maintain border strips. Two species, *Lespedeza bicolor* and *L. cyrtobotrya,* are small bushes that prevent tree growth from encroaching upon farm land and also produce heavy crops of seeds relished by quail and rabbits, and also eaten by doves and turkeys. Deer, too, feed on the plants, and also on a herbaceous species, *Lespedeza sericea,* which is planted between the bush species and the crop land as a buffer, a protection against erosion and a shelter for wildlife. These species when once established will maintain themselves as self-seeding perennials with little or no care. They are a potent aid to coordinated production of wildlife and farm crops throughout much of the southeast part of the country.

Over three thousand miles of Lespedeza border strips have now been planted by landowners in the southeastern states. Seed and planting instructions are furnished by the State Game Departments. The costs to the states are financed by projects selected by the states in accordance with the provisions of the Pittman-Robertson Federal Aid in Wildlife Restoration Act. The Federal contribution of 75 per cent of the cost of work on these projects comes from moneys collected from the Federal excise tax on sporting arms and ammunition. The work is limited to Soil Conservation Districts, which are legal subdivisions of the states, established by vote of the landowners and usually conforming to county lines.

The two instances of coordinated land use cited here—on California range lands and on farms of the southeast—are examples of what is being done in numerous other cases, and of what can be done to improve wildlife conservation where cooperative work has not yet been given a thorough trial. One of the most promising fields for future expansion of the idea is in the management of beaver. A survey of beaver management methods in the eleven western states, made in 1943 by Oregon Game Commissioner Frank B. Wire and A. B. Hatch of the Fish and Wildlife Service, showed possibilities for a 500 per cent increase in receipts from this valuable fur animal under proper management. They suggested cooperative agreements between states, landowners, and trappers, with a corresponding division of receipts, and with state administration of fur sales and of beaver damage.

Farm fish ponds also lend themselves to improved management under coordinated land use programs, and rapid strides are being made in this work, particularly in the south. The whole field of aquatic wildlife management is assuming increased importance as people realize more and more the folly of draining ponds, lakes and swamps and depleting ground water. Current plans for large impoundments in many drainage basins are receiving careful attention as to their effects upon wildlife, which may be either harmful or beneficial as circumstances dictate. These projects are almost always on such a large scale as to require cooperative planning, not only within the community but between adjoining states. All individuals and agencies are becoming aroused to the necessity for prompt planning for conservation of the biological values in river drainage basin developments before they go beyond the blue print stage. The Izaak Walton League has done much to arouse public opinion on this, and the Fish and Wildlife Service is now engaged in making cooperative studies with the states, the Reclamation Service, and the Army Engineers to make sure that fish and wildlife values receive attention comparable to that given to the flood control, hydroelectric, navigation and irrigation aspects of streams.

Coordinated use of either land or water requires an immense amount of research and experimentation. Fortunately many states have accumulated sizable backlogs of information gleaned by biologists employed by the states under the Pittman-Robertson Act. Several states now have experimental farms where various methods of integrating wildlife conservation with crop production are tested before being released for general use.

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State Planning for Industrial Development

By Hayden B. Johnson

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In recent years, state planning has become an accepted responsibility of a majority of the state governments in the United States. Almost without exception, state governments have initiated and are carrying forward planning programs of many types and with varied objectives. The basic purpose of all these programs, however, is to encourage the best possible physical, social and economic development of the state and of its resources. The procedures and programs for effectuating these aims are essentially unlimited, but the value of any particular program will not be determined by its size nor by its method of operation but rather by its practical achievements.

At the outset, it is to be emphasized that a well-developed state planning program should be based on long-range considerations and maintained on a continuing basis. Any such program, if efficient, will adapt itself to changing conditions as they occur, and the creation of special programs to meet special problems should not be necessary. Too much emphasis during the war was given to postwar planning, which in reality is one particular phase of over-all planning. The planning which we have done and are doing for the period of peace which has just begun should be based on long-range considerations, and planning begun now should continue into the indefinite future. The problems of the postwar period will not be solved in a definite period of time and, although some will be solved in the foreseeable future, many will last indefinitely, and new problems will arise to replace those which are eliminated.

Planning for industrial development is not new. Interest in this subject has existed almost continuously since the Industrial Revolution. Over a long period, government agencies and private organizations have been working on programs whose main objective is the stimulation of industrial activity and the development of natural resources. Chambers of commerce have existed for many years; the federal government has had a Department of Commerce since 1903. However, the correlation of industrial development planning with physical and social planning is a comparatively new concept and has received active attention at the state level in the United States only lately, during the war years.

State Planning Activities

There is some sort of state planning activity in almost every state in the nation. At a meeting of state planning officials in Chicago in June, 1945, representatives of many of these agencies discussed their mutual problems and described the operation of their individual programs. The wide range of activities and organizational setups which exists was very striking, but there were several functions which were common to a majority and which existed in almost all states. It was also interesting to note that in some cases a state planning commission exists which handles both physical and industrial planning; in others, there is a state planning commission and a separate industrial development agency; and in still others, there is a commission whose main purpose is industrial development. No matter what the setup, however, some activity in both fields exists in almost every program.

The most common functions of state planning commissions would seem to be the following:

1. The development of a state plan for physical development, arrived at by coordinating the planning functions of all state agencies to produce a master plan for state development;
2. The development of public works programs and capital improvement budgets on the basis of or coincidental with the above master plan;
3. Technical assistance to local governments in connection with the development of local planning programs;
4. Research activities for other state departments and the preparation of reports for governors and state legislative bodies on particular problems;
5. Coordination of social planning activities of state agencies and civic organizations to provide state programs in such activities as youth, conservation, recreation, and other fields of social planning;
6. Resource and industrial development.

Nowhere are all these various functions fully developed, but they exist in some degree of activity in various state programs.

State Planning Programs

No attempt will be made here to describe in detail these varied aspects of state planning, except for those activities concerned with resource and industrial development. It might be well, however, to discuss briefly the necessity for coordinating all phases of state planning under one independent, adequately staffed state agency. It should be obvious that the main function of such an agency is one of coordination, and that the more centralized all planning activity can be made, the greater will be the efficiency of the program and the more concrete its results. Every phase of the program outlined above should be interrelated with every other phase. Industrial development at any level will require parallel planning for new physical facilities; social planning without provision for physical facilities is worthless, and no phase of state planning that is not based on considerations of the state as a whole has much chance of success.

The importance of an independent, adequately financed agency to coordinate a state planning program cannot be overlooked. In most states where planning functions have been made a part of a regular state department, such as Conservation, Public Works, or Budg-

et, the planning program has suffered and become ineffective. A state planning program must be handled by a "staff" agency within the executive department, rather than by a "line" agency attached to an operating department. It is not by accident that the most successful state planning programs have been operated as independent agencies responsible directly to governors who understand the purposes of the programs and utilize them to the best advantage.

It might seem that considerable time has already been devoted to questions not directly related to the subject at hand. It cannot be stressed too strongly, however, that industrial development as a state function is logically a coordinated part of a fully developed, long-range program of state planning, operating independently of other state agencies.

Industrial Planning Policy

The general policy behind a program of industrial planning at the state level will naturally have a strong effect on the ultimate results of the program. The best policy will be one of education, advice and assistance rather than one of attempted compulsion. In a democratic government, planning necessarily must be done with the consent of those for whom the plans are made, rather than on the thesis of what a group of experts thinks advisable. In other words, our present form of government makes it impossible, and rightly so, for a state planning commission arbitrarily to decide whether or not an industry will be detrimental to the state as a whole and to prevent it from going into production. Conversely, it is also impossible for such a state agency to bring into being industries that obviously are needed to round out the state's economy. The state government should never try to prescribe industrial development, but to encourage it through dissemination of suitable information. Similarly, in its relation with the municipalities of the state, the State Planning Commission should limit its functions to advice and assistance, leaving the cities and towns free to attract industrial establishments without limitations.

Other state agencies, however, can take positive action which, with proper correlation with the planning agency's program, will bring about the desired social and economic results. Through regulatory legislation, for example, forests can be protected from wanton cutting of timber by lumbering interests and can be placed on a sustaining basis through reforestation and other conservation practices. The health of communities can be protected and the recreational values of streams and lakes preserved by the enactment of adequate stream pollution controls. Similarly, agricultural areas which are subject to strip-mining for coal, phosphate, or other minerals at shallow depths can be protected by sound legislative action, designed not to preclude absolutely essential mining operations but rather to assure some economic utilization of the stripped areas.

Subsidization by the state government is considered extremely inadvisable as a means of bringing into the state those industries deemed essential or necessary to the proper development of its economy. In the first place, this creates for the new industries competitive advantages that are very unfair and justly resented by established industries, both within and without the state, that have not received such aid. If an industrial project is so badly needed as to require subsidization with the taxpayers' money, and if no private concern will undertake it, then the state government could more logically own and operate the facility to the benefit of the people as a whole. In short, private enterprise, if it is to succeed, must not only be private but also must be enterprising.

In determining the general policy for industrial development, the existing conditions and over-all economy of the state must be carefully considered. The old idea that progress of a state could be measured only by its degree of industrialization has rapidly given way to the sounder philosophy of creating within a state the best possible balance between agriculture and industry, based upon the most efficient utilization of available local resources. In many areas this will involve the establishment of new industries to process raw materials that, heretofore, have been shipped to distant areas for manufacture—many times, the finished product being re-shipped to markets in the area from which the raw material came. In other instances, new industries will be required to utilize local resources of many kinds that have previously been ignored.

In states or regions where the agricultural-industrial development is badly unbalanced, with industry largely located in a few cities or areas, the state government is warranted in taking every possible positive means, short of restrictive legislation or public subsidization, to induce greater industrial dispersion. These inducements may be in the form of liberal taxation policies or other concrete attractions, but the planning agency can contribute to this program through studies that point up the disadvantages of excessive industrial concentration and the advantages of and need for wider dispersion of industry throughout the state or regions. On the other hand, in states where the cities and industrial development are well diversified, the major function of the state government is to encourage, through its planning agency, the sound local planning and zoning practices that will insure and effectively protect community growth. A well-directed program of state advertising can be very effective in connection with any such state program of industrial development. Thus, it is obvious that the policies of the state planning agency, under any program of industrial development, will be determined by the existing local conditions in the state.

Potentialities of Industrial Planning

The potential activities in the field of industrial development, as a part of the state planning program, are very numerous. In no state have all the activities listed below been developed fully. In Tennessee, the State Planning Commission has maintained an active industrial planning program for more than three years. Considerable progress has been made, and although all of the activities described below have been at one time or another discussed, only a few of them have reached any kind of positive utilization. Even the following list is partial, but it attempts to outline what appear to be some of the possible responsibilities of a state planning agency in the field of industrial development. Of primary concern

should be the necessary preliminary research to make available basic information on existing resources and development.

Inventory of state resources. Before anything can be planned, the planner must be familiar with the materials at hand. Such a report outlining in detail the general condition of industrial development, the available mineral, agricultural and forestry resources and the extent of their development, the available industrial fuels, electric power and water supplies, labor conditions, and transportation system, together with detailed information about state industrial regulations, taxes and licenses, would seem to be absolutely essential as a first step. The material should be assembled in a semi-engineering style, more as an inventory than as a promotional measure. If the picture is too black, the data need not be widely distributed, but at least those responsible for the development of the program should have a clear idea as to the state's industrial resources.

An inventory of the state's regions. The state will have problems as a whole, but most states can be easily divided into regions that have similar physical characteristics and industrial resources, with similar problems. To facilitate the study of such specific areas, a county-by-county inventory or break-down of the data relating to industrialization may be highly profitable.

With this research as a basis, it will be possible to devote attention to specific program activities. Several of these might be classified as continuing parts of a long-range program.

The coordination of government and private research and development agencies. The state planning agency should attempt to bring together, for purposes of efficiency, all agencies of the state that are working on the various phases of the whole problem of industrial development. There are many industrial agencies which are involved—the various state departments concerned with agriculture, public health, conservation, geology, and forestry, as well as Chambers of Commerce, the industrial development staffs of railroads and of industries and the business research staffs of universities. In Tennessee, the Commerce Department of the Tennessee Valley Authority cooperates with the State Planning Commission in industrial problems, and assistance is obtainable from the U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

It is usually possible to eliminate a great deal of duplicated efforts by such a program, particularly in the field of research and statistics. If the state agency does nothing more than unify the various existing activities in these fields, it will have achieved a great deal. Furthermore, it is even possible to divide the program which is developed among these interested agencies in such a way that a great deal more activity is possible than if the state agency were to work by itself.

Research activities in the development of new industries based on the state's resources. This would involve development of material showing how such industries could be established and operated, with the aim of interesting investment capital in the proposals. It does not mean the subsidization of industry, but rather the assembling of information most apt to interest private enterprise in those lines of production that can be based on the lesser known of a state's resources or other advantages.

Research stimulating the development of specific industries. This is a further step of the previous activity and would involve, among other things, state-supported laboratory research on minerals, timber or other resources that are being shipped out of the state, in order to demonstrate the possibilities for their manufacture locally. Assistance might also be given towards bringing up-to-date various industrial processes and in attempting to solve the problems of specific industries. Minerals and other resources of apparent uneconomic value could be fully investigated as to their industrial possibilities.

Research in stimulating industrial development in specific areas. This will involve assistance to areas requiring individual attention on specific problems. Among those which might benefit from this type of study are areas which are in submarginal agricultural production; areas in which there is an unfavorable balance between industry and agriculture; and areas of untapped natural resources.

In addition to these specific research studies, general assistance can be given both to industries seeking locations and to communities seeking new industries. An accurate up-to-date file should be maintained on the municipalities of the state, outlining in an accurate and reliable way exactly what the municipality has to offer to a new industry. Most of this municipal material would cover the chief points outlined above for the inventory of state resources. This complete file or community inventory should be carefully cross-indexed in order to facilitate location of a community meeting a given set of requirements for a new industry.

At the same time, the state agency has a definite responsibility to bring about the most efficient industrialization of the state, and it should attempt to influence industries to locate where they will have the best possible effect on the state as a whole. However, no sort of compulsion should be brought to bear. If an industry does not agree with the ideas of the state planning agency, or if a community wants an industry that it would probably be better without, no action should be taken by the state agency to prevent such development. Perhaps in this particular field, more than in any other, great wisdom must be exercised by the commission so that its opinions will be respected; the slightest suggestions of favoritism toward any section or element of the state would be fatal.

At the same time a program of education must be carried on to acquaint cities and industries with their responsibilities to the state as a whole. The relationship between industrial development and community planning should be forcibly demonstrated, and it should be pointed out to communities seeking industries that a new industry will make necessary additional houses, streets, schools, and other municipal facilities which may counteract the benefits derived from the increased pay roll brought by the new industry. The dangers of subsidization should be carefully explained, for, generally speaking, an industry which makes heavy demands for public subsidy as a condition for location in a community is one which is likely to leave when the subsidy

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County Zoning and Postwar Problems

By Leonard A. Salter, Jr.

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With the celebration of V-J Day came the realization that questions of future postwar reconversion had, with startling suddenness, become problems of the moment. If there ever had been any doubt that the end of the war would create serious problems of land-use adjustment in nearly every state, those doubts were dispelled within a fortnight after announcement of the Japanese capitulation. For example, talk about an expected surge in residential building activity immediately dropped out of the realm of postwar dreaming and turned to the practical questions of getting on with the job. And a few days later, the mass trek of war-plant workers back to the rural areas from which they had come became a matter of national interest and comment.

A residential construction boom and a back-to-the-land movement, however, are only two of the many postwar trends that lend importance to the subject of county planning. All signs indicate that within the next few years there will be tremendous programs of road building, of public utility construction, of new transportation and recreational facilities, of construction of schools, churches, hospitals, and other public buildings, and of commercial and industrial reorganization. Once these physical changes are made, they set a fairly rigid framework within which our future communities must function or try to function. All past experience shows that however difficult it may be to get planning done ahead of time, it is still easier than to try to rationalize a physical community pattern that has previously been fixed, however poorly that pattern meets the living, working requirements of the area concerned.

Among the instruments of public policy that can be made available to meet such problems as have been mentioned is county zoning. County zoning makes possible for areas outside of incorporated places the same general type of democratic land-use controls as have been used within cities for many years. Zoning has proved to be adaptable to a wide variety of problems.

In general, there are three types of situations to which county zoning has been applied: the suburban, the countryside, and the agricultural types. Because postwar reconversion activities are bound to accentuate the land-use problems in all of these kinds of areas, a brief discussion of them is in order.

Suburban Zoning

The suburban type of county zoning is that for which county zoning was first introduced. It is also the most complicated. The central problem in this type of situation is that of extending the periphery of an urban center into the surrounding countryside. In every case, some large city is located in the county and the need arises so to pattern the urbanization of the fringe territory around the city as to bring harmony into the area's development; for invariably as a city grows, the political boundary line of the city becomes artificial and meaningless in so far as the social functioning of the area is concerned.

Without county zoning around a city's edge, the nuisance uses which may be restricted by the city's ordinances are dumped into the periphery area; residential, commercial, and industrial uses are established in such fashion as to hinder the wholesome expansion of the urban residential area; street and transportation patterns are laid out which may make impossible an efficient system to serve the metropolitan area as a whole; and agricultural and other land uses may be knocked out of existence long before there is any real need for the land for other purposes. Even if, as is sometimes the case, the towns adjacent to the city are given the right to enact zoning regulations, there is no assurance that the plans of these individual towns will be coordinated so as to make for the best development of the area as a whole.

It is because of the very real nature of these problems that in many metropolitan areas, vigorous activity has been under way to try to establish some form of coordinated planning in these rural-urban fringe areas. But there are more states in which these efforts have been made than there are states which have actually given their counties the power to enact and enforce county-wide zoning. Fifteen years ago, only three states had made such provision; today about ten states have passed the necessary enabling acts. But only about thirty counties in these ten states have actually passed suburban-type county zoning ordinances, according to John Mason of the U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics.[1] Examples are Milwaukee County, Wisconsin and Roanoke County, Virginia.

Progress Slow in Relation to Need

Looking at the need for county-wide suburban land-use controls on the one hand and the accomplishments to date, one must conclude that even though some progress has been made, it is unfortunate that we are not already farther ahead with this type of planning activity.

The backed-up demands for residential and commercial building construction and for public works activity which will be let loose in the next few years will descend with particular force upon these urban fringe areas. For some years now, population statistics have consistently shown that the central cities are losing population relative to the tremendous growth of their suburban territories. It is wholly reasonable to expect that, while our central cities will not disappear, much if not most of the new residential building will be in the fringe areas.

Along with the suburban residential growth, there

[1] A valuable recent summary of rural zoning possibilities will be found in Mr. Mason's recent report on *Zoning for Rural Virginia*, published by the Virginia State Planning Board.

will also be the establishment of services and public facilities for these new areas as well as the construction of new interurban highways. Already the development of city airport terminals in outlying regions has raised new problems. In Maryland, for instance, the state legislature has paved the way for an airport zoning body under the joint jurisdiction of the city of Baltimore and Anne Arundel County.

The task of suburban county zoning is not an easy one, but it is one for which there has been some preparation. Many of the problems in this field parallel those which have been met in the literally hundreds of incorporated places which have zoning ordinances. In addition, these metropolitan areas, at least in comparison with other types of areas, have resources on which to draw so that they may provide for the proper preparation and administration of their zoning regulations.

If ever there were both a need and an opportunity for rationalized urban growth, it is now, and the use of county zoning would be a real help in making the most of this chance. In the states like Virginia, Pennsylvania, Colorado, Michigan, Minnesota, California, and Wisconsin where counties are already enabled to zone, there is need to proceed at once with the drawing of plans and to reappraise ordinances where they already exist in the light of expected developments. In states where such powers have not yet been granted to the counties, it may be too late to be able to plan ahead of the anticipated rush; yet the only alternative is to proceed to ask for such legislation. City and state planning boards or zoning commissions where they exist should be extremely helpful in providing the evidence on the need for such action and in assisting in the preparation of suburban county ordinances. Furthermore, it should be to the interest of state agencies in charge of the expenditure of state public works moneys in the next few years to put their weight on the side of encouraging land planning and zoning in these counties where haphazard construction and development can jeopardize the possibility of attaining the greatest public benefit from these expenditures.

Countryside Zoning

In some rural areas, special land-use problems may arise in regard to the use of the margins of through highways, the establishment of recreational areas, or the development of small residential or commercial districts. Examples of county zoning of this type are Jefferson County, Wisconsin, Loudoun County, Virginia, and various counties in California.

Essentially, zoning ordinances of this type provide for land-use controls of specific spots or strips; the bulk of the county's territory is left unrestricted, and most of it is in agricultural uses.

In the postwar years, there will be need for more such county zoning ordinances particularly in connection with the construction of new highways and the development of residence subdivisions at some distance from employment centers. Strip highway zoning can increase the utility and safety of highways by controlling the uses adjacent to the road and by establishing safety margins.

Another type of problem that can be ameliorated under ordinances of this kind is that of flood control. Flood-plain zoning,[2] as it is called, may be used to prevent the encroachment of buildings into the path of expected flood waters. If in the coming years the public is to spend millions of dollars to construct engineering works for the control of water, such spending programs should be geared into flood-plain land-use planning in order to prevent needless exaggeration of damages from such surplus waters as will still have to find their way downstream.

Compared with county zoning of the other two types, ordinances of this kind are relatively easy to prepare and to administer. State planning boards can, at little expense, be of immense help in getting this job done when state authority exists for county zoning.

Agricultural Zoning

A third type of county zoning has been and may be applied in so-called rural land-use problem areas where there are reasons for preventing haphazard settlement of rural lands. While not so complicated as suburban zoning so far as the variety of uses is concerned, agricultural zoning involves many questions that are not easy of solution. Authority for this type of county zoning exists in some ten states, but use of it has been made mainly in northern Wisconsin and to a lesser extent in northern Minnesota and Michigan.

The central aim of zoning in these instances is to try to keep new farm settlement out of areas of poor soil or areas which are so isolated as to require excessive costs of providing public services. The designation of such areas is not difficult inasmuch as there is a fair body of available knowledge regarding soil resources; and it is not difficult to spot locations, the settlement of which would involve the expenditure of large sums for road and school services.

The need for this type of county zoning in the coming years is evident. There will be a demand for land from veterans, displaced war-workers, and pensioners. The idea of agricultural zoning certainly is not to prevent these groups from realizing their desires; it is only to try to direct them to lands which have the best potentialities for meeting their needs and the least potentialities for creating serious local government difficulties.

Experience shows that cheap land for agricultural purposes is often the most expensive land for both the settler and the community. Veterans and ex-war-workers who go into farming after the war should be encouraged to spend their money and their strength, not on land that cannot return a living but on land that offers some reward for what is put into it. Veterans or others who want a home in the country but who expect to receive their cash income from nonfarm work or from pensions may seek a country place without regard to its agricultural suitability; but for such demands there already are ample sites which have good schools, roads, mail service, and other facilities. Both the settler's and the public's interest will be served if these people are directed away from isolated spots which do not have these essentials.

In one other respect, this type of county zoning will take on added importance in the future. For most poor

[2] *See* Ralph B. Wertheimer's report on *Flood-Plain Zoning;* California State Planning Board, 1942.

farm land areas, the best alternative uses are forestry or recreation. There is wide expectation that the latter will be one of our most promising industries in the future. Recreational values depend, even more than some others, on amenity considerations; and these in turn very largely depend on the pattern of physical facilities which is amenable to planning through the zoning process.

The obstacles to agricultural county zoning arise mainly from two sources. First, in this type of zoning the local people have to make a public decision that no new population is wanted at least in parts of their community. This decision is not easy to make. Where farming enterprises are ruled out under suburban ordinances, it is for the express purpose of encouraging other uses which will bring a larger population. But under the agricultural type of county zoning, where farming is prohibited, the intention is to encourage uses, especially forestry, which do not include year-round residences.

The record shows that this obstacle can be overcome. In Wisconsin, where twenty-five counties have agricultural zoning, the amendments to the original ordinances have put more land under restrictions against farming than they have taken out. In other words, when the disadvantages of unrestrained settlement have been made clear and when the local people have been given the facts, they have proceeded to establish public planning even to the extent of reducing the amount of neighboring land that may be in homes rather than in woods. Still, such a program is long in the making. In the northern lake states where the greatest headway has been made, many years of work preceded the enactment of the first county ordinance; and even yet, after many additional years of fact-finding and education, vast areas in which agricultural enterprises would be clearly unsound are still open to haphazard settlement. In terms of the national picture, only a minute portion of submarginal agricultural land is under any effective form of public protection.

It should be pointed out that in the last decade, a great deal has been done in collecting primary data that would be essential to the development of agricultural county zoning ordinances. This work has included the making of land classification maps as well as local government and land utilization studies. In some instances, committees of local people have demarcated areas in their communities on the basis of their suitability for agricultural use. All these efforts are on the favorable side for action, yet it is a long step between the designation of land classes and the enactment of a county zoning ordinance; and it is quite necessary that the latter be done by the local people. The big job, then, is one of education.

The second obstacle is that of administration, once an agricultural zoning ordinance is passed. Because of the scanty financial resources of the areas where this type of land-use control is needed, it is particularly difficult to establish and maintain the necessary enforcement machinery.[3] In this matter, the state governments can be of assistance. If they will recognize that by adopting an ordinance a county shows itself ready and willing to help itself, then they might also recognize that such counties are deserving of state assistance in carrying on the job of administering their zoning programs.

Summary. The sudden end of the war has revealed the extent of the failure adequately to prepare for land-use adjustments that are in the offing. Many types of postwar programs could be made more effective and postwar maladjustments could be lessened if there were wider use of suburban, countryside, or agricultural county zoning. A start has been made inasmuch as a few such county ordinances are in effect and several states already have the necessary enabling legislation. Also, there is a backlog of experience in urban zoning and a good deal of factual information on rural problem areas. Various branches of the state governments, including educational agencies, can be of great help in promoting the proper use of county zoning in those many instances where it can be used to avoid personal hardship and to accelerate the wholesome development of our suburban and rural areas.

[3] *See* G. S. Wehrwein, "The Administration of Rural Zoning," *Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics*, August, 1943.

A Forestry Plan

(*Continued from page 177*)

the states should be through the respective state forestry departments. The Norris-Doxey Act should be amended and made a part of the Clarke-McNary Act. When a federal forest regulatory act is passed it should take over from the Norris-Doxey Act the powers and duties that apply to assistance to forest landowners. Differentiation should not be made between classes of forest landowners whether farmer, lumberman, or school teacher.

A practical administrative setup as follows is suggested. An act of the federal government would control cutting practices through the U. S. Forest Service, which under the Clarke-McNary principle would cooperate with those states which have adopted a state cutting practices act. Funds on a 50–50 basis would be made available to the state forestry departments for the employment of county foresters to service all types of forest ownership. Why should a forester from one bureau visit a farmer, and a forester from another bureau visit a contiguous owner who is a lumberman and a third forester supervise cutting on an adjacent municipal forest?

The County Forester would give service to the landowner in marking and marketing his timber. A small fee available to the project would be charged to cover this type of service.

The Extension Forester would carry on the education and demonstration work with groups of farmers, mill owners, lumbermen, 4H Clubs and others in close cooperation with the County Forester. This educational field demands a different type of person. The needs are so great that it will require more than the full time of one forester for each ten forested counties.

Editor's Note: Mr. Merrill is a member of the forestry committee of the Council of State Governments. The tentative and preliminary report of the committee, of which Governor Snell of Oregon is chairman, was printed in the March, 1945 issue of STATE GOVERNMENT. pages 45–47 under the title, "Developing Forest Resources."

Controlled Access and Thruway Planning in New York State

By Chas. H. Sells

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"Limited access" highway construction in New York state has been superseded by "controlled access" highway planning. In 1937 the Legislature with the approval of the Governor enacted the first "limited access" highway legislation in New York state. Under the terms of this act the Superintendent of Public Works was empowered to designate the parts of the state highway system that should be constructed under "limited access" provisions.

Only one such highway was constructed before war restrictions upon manpower and materials halted highway construction. It is located in Chautauqua County, is about three miles in length and has been in operation about four years. With one exception this route has been favorably received by the public and by abutting property owners. This exception came about apparently because one tract of land had such peculiar and rugged topography it was incapable of being economically subdivided into smaller tracts. It was impractical to provide access to the smaller parcels except by direct access to the new highway. Other local roads, either existing or proposed, could not be utilized to provide access to the various parts of the severed property.

The problem was to determine whether the land should remain as it was or whether concessions should be made in the "limited access" provisions. The latter solution is legally difficult since the original right-of-way was acquired under the "limited access" provisions of the law and the owner was supposed to have been compensated for all damages caused by the severance. Probably this problem will be settled ultimately by a modification of the "limited access" restrictions. Highway expansion and development should not preclude reasonable expansion and development of land use. As a matter of fact it should intensify land use and stimulate values in the areas served by the highway, consistent of course with the safety and welfare of the public at large.

In 1942 the thruway idea was born in New York state. A system of thruways was created by legislative act with the approval of the Governor.

The thruways are definitely located by law and when constructed will provide a superhighway extending along the western side of the Hudson River from the northern New Jersey line to Albany. From there, it will reach westward to serve Schenectady, Utica, Syracuse, Rochester and Buffalo. It will continue on southwestward along the Lake Erie plain to the Pennsylvania line, near the city of Erie. The total length of the thruway will be about four hundred and eighty-five miles.

The New Jersey terminus will be connected with the New York city arterial system and the northern New Jersey metropolitan centers by high capacity routes. As a matter of fact the state of New Jersey has recently authorized a connection to the thruway. It will extend across the northern part of that state and join with the George Washington Bridge which spans the Hudson River and connects with the main routes in New York city.

In addition to the main system, spur thruway routes connecting the principal thruway with other high capacity and comparable routes in adjacent states and in the province of Ontario, Canada are being planned. They will be built with "limited access" provisions and be located entirely on new rights-of-way.

As the planning for the new thruway system advanced it became apparent that the term "limited access" did not clearly define the fundamental idea of the law. It appeared to indicate that perhaps only certain types of vehicles might have the right of entry upon the thruway system, whereas actually the thruway will be an all purpose highway, designed for the use of all types of traffic.

In other meanings too, the word "limited" seemed to imply restrictions over and above those actually intended by the law. Basically, the intent of the law was to provide that traffic should enter and leave this type of highway only at such locations and in such manner as the designs might provide. The lack of direct access from abutting property might be compensated by the use of other abutting highways which connect directly with the thruway or by the use of parallel or other newly constructed roads built as a supplement to the thruway.

With the vast amount of land acquisition which the state faces in the construction of its thruway system and in the development of its highway system too, it is imperative that a clear and concise understanding of the rights of access be had. Improper conception of these rights might lead to an imposition of severance damages substantially in excess of any warranted amount.

At the most recent session of the Legislature sympathetic attention was given to this problem and as a result the word "limited" was stricken from the law and the word "controlled" substituted. The Governor concurred and as a result New York state now has legal authority for the development of "controlled access" highways.

Prior to 1943 the obligation for the acquisition of lands needed for state highway construction rested upon the counties. Frequently county fiscal policies or lack of sympathy for particular state highway developments

resulted in a deferment of needed highway improvements or in alternate construction located on inadequate alignment and grade.

In 1943 the Legislature and the Governor transferred this obligation to the state and now the entire cost of land acquisition for state highway improvements is a state charge.

Land required for the thruway has been inherently a state charge by the terms of the thruway law. Now, the use of the term "controlled access" is expected to produce economy in land acquisition as a result of a better public understanding of the meaning of the term.

The thruway system, now in process of design, is expected to cost about $202,000,000. It will pass within an hour's ride, over 75 per cent of the state's population. It will transect the heart of most of the business, commercial and industrial areas of the state and be connected with the principal agricultural and recreational centers by modern state highways.

Ample highway connections will be provided leading directly to the business centers of the cities located along its route and it is expected that the economic development of the state will be enhanced immeasurably by this construction.

The thruway is being designed to be the "greatest highway in the world." Three lanes in each direction separated by a wide center mall; maximum gradients of 3 per cent; long sight distances; no crossings of any kind at grade; no traffic lights; built-in safety devices are some of the fixed principles of design.

Relation to Urban Traffic Problems

For many years the state has taken no recognition of the traffic problems existing within its many cities. Except for some slight federal and state aid in the make-work era each city has had to finance its own highway program. In most urban sections our forefathers had little conception of the modern traffic maelstrom. The urge of auto drivers and truck operators to get to the heart of our great centers, often thru a maze of narrow streets, produces inevitable traffic tie-ups and bottlenecks. Cities are financially unable to cope with this problem as rapidly as the public demands its relief and economic conditions require. In recognition of this condition and in order to speed its solution, action of the Legislature and the Governor this year made possible the construction of arterial routes through cities at state expense, that is with the exception of the costs of rights-of-way which the cities must bear equally with the state.

The design of these connecting highways, which is now under way, presents many interesting problems. Greater traffic capacity must be provided in all cases and quick and uninterrupted traffic flow must be maintained from the business centers and areas of mass employment to the city limits. At the same time land values are high and excessive damages must be avoided not only to keep costs down but also to minimize reduction in local assessed valuations. Dislocation of business, industrial, and residential areas must be avoided as community life must be unhampered. The designers of these routes face many hours of study to avoid these damaging elements and at the same time provide an adequate highway artery.

In the many villages of the state, some of which are larger than some of the cities, state policy has been liberalized with respect to the distribution of costs between the state and the villages on state highway construction. Under the new policy the only cost imposed upon the locality is the expense of additional features over and above those proposed by the state. Many hazards and bottlenecks have been allowed to continue because under the old law the village could not afford the expense of sharing costs with the state. The new liberalized law will transfer all needed costs to the state and designs are already in progress to improve the standards of state highway construction in villages.

There are over thirteen thousand miles on the state highway system and over one-third is planned for reconstruction and modernization.

A Five-Year Construction Program

All these improvements are a part of the five-year program of postwar construction submitted by the State Department of Public Works to the Legislature and the Governor. This program also includes parkway extensions, bridge construction, railroad grade crossing eliminations, secondary road development, building construction and other features. The total cost is estimated to exceed $840,000,000. With the federal aid available to the state and with part of the "frozen" state surplus accumulated during the past two years and now amounting to well over $300,000,000 and still growing, it is believed that a start can be made as soon as war restrictions are removed. It is also believed that the balance of the program can be readily financed on a pay-as-you-go basis.

Even with the enlargement of the state's interest and contribution to the development of the highway system in its various types of municipality, provision has been made for protection of the home rule principle. No change in alignment of any state highway can be made if it exceeds one mile in length unless it has the formal approval of the local county officials. No plan involving the acquisition of land in any city can be undertaken without the approval of the city. Furthermore, as a matter of departmental policy, all plans, whether approval is required or not, are informally discussed with local officials before work is commenced.

In New York state the next five years will determine the wisdom or fallacy of the idea of "controlled access" in highway construction. As stated above, the 485-mile thruway will have "controlled access" throughout. Some state highways, including those in cities and villages, will have "controlled access" in whole or in part. The determination as to the use of this measure can be made only after an analysis of the particular conditions surrounding each project and the service expected from it. Property has little value and little use unless it is accessible. Highway service must have an overwhelming demand before it should be allowed to stultify property capable of use and development. The correct determination of the economic balance in these respects is a function of the highway designer and administration. In any event it is certain that highway safety more and more will demand adequate provisions for the control of all intersecting traffic.

Teamwork in Game Management

(*Continued from page 183*)

The era of the barber shop biologist, handling wildlife "by guess and by gosh," has passed. Expensive cure-alls such as the repeated releasing of game birds and mammals in country unsuited to maintenance of breeding populations, are on their way out. The less spectacular, but more effective method of improving food and cover in coordination with other land uses is now gaining wide acceptance because it works without waste of public funds. More important, the idea sells itself to the practical landowner or administrator, who readily appreciates the advantages of a wildlife program that uses previously idle land, aids erosion control, and improves the forage and water for livestock. The productive level of the land is raised, and returns from all crops, both wild and tame, are increased. Even on lands primarily useful for wildlife, and designated as refuges, a coordination of grazing or haying operations with wildlife management is often mutually advantageous. Teamwork is the essence of the sport, with state and federal agencies calling the signals, and landowners and sportsmen sharing the bumps and benefits of the wildlife conservation game.

State Planning for Industrial Development

(*Continued from page 186*)

ends, or when a competing community raises the bid. A great deal of material exists on this particular subject and, almost without exception, it adds up to a case against municipal subsidization.

Conclusion

The importance of negative state controls and restrictions on industrial location is neither advisable nor practicable in the United States. In states or regions where industrial-agricultural development is unbalanced and the industry all located in one city or area of the state, every possible inducement should be employed by the state government to disperse further industrial development as far as is economically practicable.

In states where the cities and industrial development are well diversified, the major function of the state government is to encourage, through its planning commission, sound local planning and zoning practices to insure and protect effective community development.

SENATE AIRPORT BILL PASSED WITH BREWSTER AMENDMENTS

AFTER MANY HOURS of spirited debate, the United States Senate accepted on September 11 the Brewster amendments to S2, the McCarran Federal-Aid Airport Bill, providing for the channeling of federal grants-in-aid for the development and construction of airports through state aviation agencies following the pattern so successfully used in building public roads. Under the McCarran Bill, which now goes to the House, the federal government could spend $75,000,000 a year for the next five years in the construction of airports. Matching would be on a dollar-for-dollar basis with state and local agencies matching federal funds which would be channeled through the states. The bill was approved by a voice vote after the Brewster amendments had previously been adopted by a 40 to 33 roll-call vote.

When after months of committee hearings the bill sponsored by Senator McCarran of Nevada reached the Senate floor, Senator Owen Brewster of Maine, former chairman of the Governors' Conference, offered amendments providing that federal grants would be allocated through state airport agencies in much the same way as public road funds are handled. The original measure permitted cities desiring to construct large airports to come directly to Washington for funds, without reference to or consultation with state agencies in regard to the development of an integrated national airport system. The Governors' Conference, the National Association of State Aviation Officials, Commissions on Interstate Cooperation and state officials throughout the country unanimously supported the Brewster amendments.

Debate on the amendments was led by Senator Brewster and supported by Senator Leverett Saltonstall of Massachusetts, Senator A. B. Chandler of Kentucky, and Senator C. Wayland Brooks of Illinois. Senator Josiah W. Bailey of North Carolina, Chairman of the Commerce Committee, and Senator Olin D. Johnston of South Carolina were among those favoring the amendments. In the course of the Senate debate Senator Brewster declared:

The idea that municipalities should come directly to Washington in order to secure developments within their boundaries seems to me to have been at the root of very many of the difficulties of the last decade, that it strikes at the very foundations of our entire conception of a Federal Government, and that anything which looks in this direction in the postwar period may well be examined with exceeding care before we discard the tested principles. . . .

I hope that as these amendments are considered there may well be thorough exploration in the action we may take, of whether or not we should retain the well-tested principle of channeling this aid through the state government.

Whether or not we are going to embark upon a program of city-states, such as threatens in some aspects of the program under consideration, I do not know. But the suggestion that the state government may be powerful enough to break a city lobby, and that the state may restrict the city in its exercise of its present powers under existing law by affirmative legislation, in the face of the bait that we as a federal authority are here offering, is to me somewhat dubious.

In addition, Senator Chandler pointed out that:

Presumably we are undertaking to establish a national airport program. We are going to establish one that will be just and fair, we hope, to all the people of the country. It seems to me that unless we establish it by making direct contact with the states, we will invite failure at the start.

During the debate on the second day, Senator Saltonstall gave further emphasis to the states' position in these words:

The amendment of the Senator from Maine (Mr. Brewster) coordinates within the state all airport activities. It continues the present method of distributing federal funds to the state. So far as I know, the only funds of the federal government which were distributed directly to municipalities in the past were the WPA funds. I believe that all child welfare funds, social security funds, public-highway funds, and funds of similar character were always distributed through state agencies.

Another airport aid bill (HR3615) by Congressman Clarence F. Lea of California is pending in the House. This measure, unlike the McCarran Bill, would permit direct grants to cities and other non-federal public agencies. Under the Lea Bill $650,000,000 would be provided for a ten-year period. It is expected that efforts will be made by the states to substitute the McCarran Bill for the Lea Bill or to amend that measure to provide for state channeling of federal airport funds.

WASHINGTON REPORT

Aviation

On September 12 the Senate adopted S2, the Federal-Aid Airport Bill, after accepting the Brewster amendments requiring channeling of federal grants for airport development through the states. The vote on Senator Brewster's amendments was 40 to 33 with several absentee Senators indicating they would have voted "aye" had they been present. The principal changes effected by the amendments were as follows:

1. All federal grants for airport development are to be channeled through state airport agencies, 65 per cent being apportioned among the states on a population and area basis for the construction of class 3 and smaller airports, while the remaining 35 per cent would be allocated (subject to final approval by Congress) to the state airport agencies for specific class 4 and larger airport projects on the basis of need.

2. The authorized appropriation is $75,000,000 a year for the next five fiscal years instead of the $100,000,000 figure in the original bill.

3. In developing a national airport plan, CAA "shall request the airport agency of each state to submit a recommended plan of airport development for that state, which (the Administrator) may approve or modify in whole or in part."

4. The provision in the original bill that contracts shall be enforceable by decrees of specific performance was deleted.

5. The provision in the original bill authorizing federal condemnation of land for local airport projects was deleted.

S2 now goes to the House, which will probably substitute some version of its own airport-aid bill, HR3615. Since HR3615, as reported from the House Interstate and Foreign Commerce Committee, calls for a system of federal grants to be made to political subdivisions without reference to the states, amendments will probably be offered similar to the Brewster amendments accepted by the Senate. If such amendments are not successful in the House, the final version of the legislation will have to be drafted in conference.

Employment Service

In his message to Congress on September 6, President Truman said:

I urgently recommend that the Congress do not yet return the Employment Service to the States. Ultimately it should be so returned. However, it should be continued under Federal control at least until the expiration of the War Mobilization Act—June 30, 1947. I also recommend that its appropriation be increased by $10,000,000 for the current fiscal year.

Previously the Labor-Federal Security Appropriation Bill had been amended to require that the Employment Service facilities, property and personnel be turned back to the states within 90 days after the cessation of hostilities, but this provision cannot take effect until the "termination of hostilities" has been determined by official act of Congress or the President.

The Executive Committee of the Governors' Conference met with the President in August to discuss the matter. It was agreed at that time that the administration of the Employment Service should be returned to the states—the only questions involved were when and how such a transfer could be effectuated.

On September 19 the Senate adopted the Lucas amendment to the Kilgore unemployment compensation bill (S. 1274) requiring that "Employment Service facilities, property, and personnel loaned by the States to the United States Employment Service, shall be returned to the States not later than 90 days after the date of enactment of this act."

Unemployment Compensation

The question of federal supplementation of state unemployment compensation payments has been the top problem under consideration by the returning Congress. Extensive hearings were conducted in August and running into September, by the Senate Finance Committee and the House Ways and Means Committee. Governor Edward Martin of Pennsylvania, testifying as chairman of the Governors' Conference, brought out the states' opposition "to any bill or plan designed to federalize the administration of unemployment compensation." A majority of the state officials that appeared was also opposed to the federal supplementation features of the Kilgore Bill (S1274) and the Doughton Bill (HR3736), both of which proposed an increase in maximum benefit rates to $25 per week for a maximum duration of 26 weeks.

On September 20 the Senate passed the Kilgore bill with amendments to provide the following:

1. Federal supplementation is provided to increase the duration of benefits to a maximum of 26 weeks. The supplementation is mandatory, written request of a governor is not required, and if a State does not consent to administer the supplementary benefits, the federal government will do so itself.

2. Coverage is extended to all federal employees, but at the rates prevailing in the States where such employee worked.

3. Coverage is extended to some 400,000 maritime workers. If service was performed on a vessel engaged in coastwise or foreign trade, the District of Columbia Unemployment Compensation Law shall apply.

4. A transportation allowance of up to $200 is provided for persons who migrated to war jobs after December 7, 1941. Such allowance can be used to return home or to move to another job location.

5. The Employment Services shall be returned to the States not later than ninety days after the Bill becomes law.

Further changes may be expected before the legislation is passed in final form, but it seems assured that any supplementation features that may be retained will not affect in any way the continued administration of unemployment compensation under state control.

Surplus Property

Congressional approval has been given to President Truman's request that the three-man Surplus Property Board be replaced by a single administrator. HR3907, carrying this provision into effect, was adopted on September 12, and as this issue went to press, Chairman W. Stewart Symington was named new Surplus Property Administrator.

Substantive changes in the provisions of the Surplus Property Act of 1944 may also be forthcoming. Both House and Senate committees are ready to consider such changes, but are awaiting suggestions from the new Surplus Property Administration before taking any action.

On September 6 the Purchasing Committee of the Council of State Governments met in Washington to discuss recent developments with respect to the disposal of surplus property. The committee, composed of a number of state purchasing officials, met with Chairman Symington of the Surplus Property Board and suggested to him that the Board, or its successor, set up adequate machinery to assure the states an opportunity to fulfill their legitimate needs in acquiring surplus property. The committee is also following closely the pending revision of SPB Regulation 2 which governs the disposal of surplus property to states.

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